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Little Red Schoolhouse

Survey reveals some progress and many problems in the nation's one-teacher schools. Most teachers are doing a heroic job despite long hours, poor pay, incredible working conditions

ALTHOUGH THE ONE-TEACHER schools are being abandoned rapidly, many such schools are still in operation. Several hundred thousands of American school children went by foot, automobile, bicycle, or on horseback to nearly 24,000 one-teacher schools in 1958-59.

Most young people are not acquainted with one-teacher schools, but their fathers and certainly their grandfathers are not strangers to them. The alumni of one-teacher schools remember with mixed feelings the box-like wooden structure, the hand water pump, the woodshed behind the school, the two little outhouses far in the background, and the potbellied stove surrounded by rows of desks and benches.

For families living in sparsely settled plains and mountain communities the one-teacher schools were indispensable. With better roads, school buses, and school district consolidations, the number of one-teacher schools has diminished, but the important role these schools are still playing in providing education for some American children cannot be ignored. For the sake of hundreds of thousands of children still dependent on these schools, the remaining one-teacher schools must be made as good as possible.

Recently, the NEA Research Division conducted a national study of one-teacher schools. Here are some highlights from this study:

- Twenty percent of the public schools in the United States were one-teacher schools in 1959. The teaching staff represented 2 percent of all classroom teachers.
- Eighty percent of all the one-teacher schools are located in 12 states.
- Nearly 400,000 children, 1.1 percent of all children enrolled in public schools, are in one-teacher schools.
- An average work week for teachers in one-teacher schools is 54 hours.
- The median salary of teachers in one-teacher schools is $2923.
- A typical teacher in a one-teacher school is a woman who was reared in open country, is married, has two children, has taught school for 11 years, and is 45 years old.
- Eighty-four percent of the teachers have less than four years of college education.
- A typical one-teacher school building is 42 years old. About 23 percent of all one-teacher schools were constructed before 1900.

Number of One-Teacher Schools, 1918 to 1959

The number of one-teacher schools declined tremendously from 1918 to 1959. The number has decreased by 88 percent in the past 41 years.

In 1917-18, there were 196,037 one-teacher schools in the United States. This represented 70.8 percent of all public schools that year. These one-teacher schools were staffed by 31.0

Next issue of Bulletin will be published in May.

percent of all classroom teachers, and were attended by about 5 million or one-fourth of all school children.

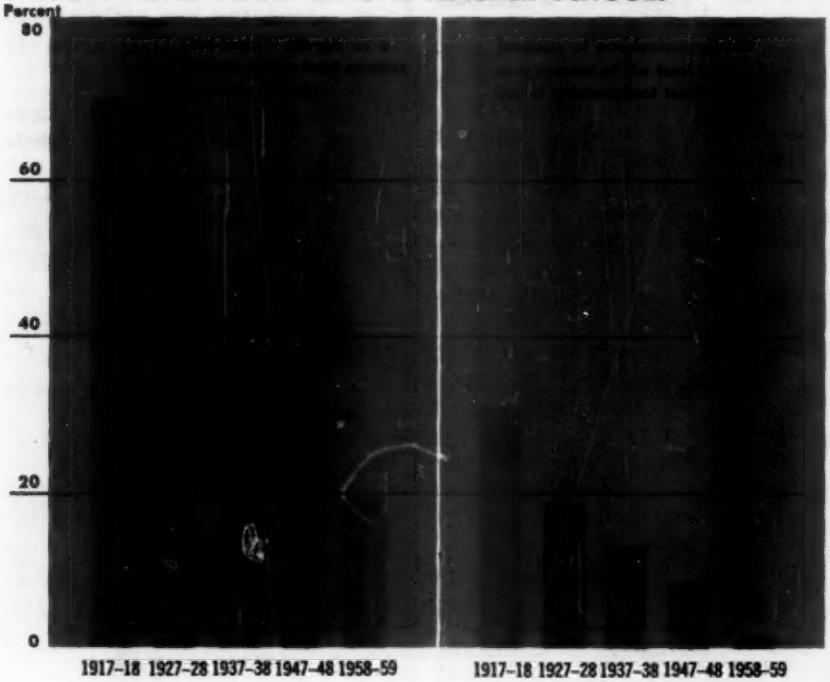
This picture has radically changed. In 1959, there were 23,695 one-teacher schools. This represented 19.5 percent of all public schools in 1959. These one-teacher schools were staffed by 1.8 percent of all classroom teachers, and were attended by about 392,390 children, or 1.1 percent of all school children.

In 1959, about 80 percent of the one-teacher schools were concentrated in 12 states: Montana, North Dakota, South Dakota, Nebraska, Kansas, Minnesota, Iowa, Missouri, Wisconsin, Michigan, Kentucky, and West Virginia. About 52 percent of the schools reporting were located in open country, 38.3 percent in centers of less than 150 population, and 10.1 percent in villages of 150 population and over.

There are two points of view regarding the value and future of the one-teacher schools. One group believes that part of the solution to the problems of rural education lies in replacing all the remaining one-teacher schools with centrally located larger graded schools. These people say that only a large school with several teachers and a large, well-equipped plant can effectively and economically provide the various educational services required to meet the needs of children today.

Opposing this view are those who are convinced that there are circumstances under which it is better to keep the one-teacher school than to subject children

1—FORTY-ONE YEARS OF ONE-TEACHER SCHOOLS



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to the fatigue and hazards of transportation to distant centers. Some people believe that the small schools can provide nearly as good an educational experience for the rural child as can a large school. They say, also, that these schools help keep the function of education in the community, help maintain a community center within easy reach of every farm, and because classes are small, are more conducive to quality education.

In the Research Division study, the teachers were asked: "Do you think it would be possible to consolidate your school with another school in the area?" About 66 percent said it was possible, 24 percent said it was not possible, and 10 percent had no opinion. The 66 percent comprised 46.6 percent who favored consolidation, 13.7 percent who did not favor consolidation, and 5.6 percent who had no opinion.

Teachers opposed to the consolidation of the schools gave these reasons for their view:

Horseback road only, in winter season. (West Virginia)

There are times when they can't get to school here. It would be impossible to get to school in event of storm. (Nebraska)

It has been voted down twice—takes too much money. (New Hampshire)

Patrons object—such young children leave home too early on buses and return too late. (Missouri)

A river with no bridge separates the two schools. (South Dakota)

There are many small children. Our winters are too severe. Fathers can get the children to school now via tractor, horseback, or even team and wagon nearly all the time. (North Dakota)

Children get more individual attention in a small school. (Minnesota)

Most parents don't favor consolidation. "Johnny" has a better chance to learn to read in his own home school. (Minnesota)

Most of the people are going to move if the school is consolidated. The school could be repaired, and electricity could be easily furnished. (New Mexico)

Many of our outstanding people attended one-room schools. Why destroy them? Spend a little money on them, and with a good teacher they are better than crowded buses and rooms. (Kentucky)

Many times these consolidations create overcrowded conditions, long rides on buses over rough roads, and parents live too far from school to take active part in PTA activities. (Kansas)

All Amish—they do not want to go to school with the English. (Pennsylvania)

The little democracies seem to be doing all right as is. (South Dakota)

The parents wish to keep the school because it is considered one of the oldest one-room schools in the country, and is the center of community activity for this particular area. (West Virginia)

The people are backward and do not wish to lose the school. (Illinois)

Personal Status of the Teachers

Teachers in one-teacher schools were asked a number of questions about their personal and professional status. The replies can be compared with data representing all American public-school teachers reported for the year 1955-56.

The widely accepted notion that the one-teacher schools are staffed by young unmarried schoolma'ams with only a high-school education lacks foundation. The average teacher in a one-teacher school is 45 years old, two years older than the average of all public-school teachers.

On the average, the men teachers are much younger than the women teachers. The median age of the men teachers is 31.5 years while the median age of the women teachers is 46 years.

The survey found that older teachers were teaching in larger communities than the younger teachers. The median age of teachers employed in open country was 43 years; in centers of less than 150 population, 46; and in villages of 150 or more population, 47.

Only 8.3 percent of the teachers in one-room schools are men. Thus, the women outnumber the men more than 10 to 1. This proportion is quite different from that of the total elementary-school teaching staff where 86.9 percent

2—AGE OF TEACHERS IN ONE-TEACHER SCHOOLS, 1958-59

Age groups	Percent of men teachers	Percent of women teachers	All teachers	
			Number	Percent
Below 21	8.4%	3.6%	62	4.0%
21-30....	40.0	17.4	303	19.3
31-40....	16.8	16.8	263	16.8
41-50....	15.9	29.8	449	28.6
51-60....	12.9	26.5	398	25.4
61-65....	4.5	4.6	72	4.6
Over 65..	1.5	1.3	21	1.3
	100.0%	100.0%	....	100.0%
Number reporting	132	1,436	1,568	....
Median age	31.5 years	46 years	45 years	...

were women and 13.1 percent were men in 1958-59.

A typical teacher in the one-teacher school is married and has two children.

The percent of men teachers who are single is greater than the percent of women teachers who are single. This is the reverse of the situation in the nation's public schools in general.

Teachers in one-room schools who have families have the same number of children, on the average, as do public-school teachers in general who have families—two children each.

College Education

In 1955-56, about two-thirds of all elementary-school teachers had a bachelor's or higher college degree; one-eighth held a master's degree.

The teachers in the one-teacher schools do not meet such high academic standards. Nearly 84 percent of them have had less than four years of college preparation. Only 16 percent have had four or more years of college; only 3.2 percent have had five or more years of college preparation.

Table 5 shows that the teachers with greater educational preparation are employed by larger communities. It also shows that the average man teacher is better educated than the average woman teacher.

Certification

The percent of women teachers having certificates representing full qualifications for their position is higher than that for men teachers—about 87 percent of the women teachers and 70 percent of the men teachers have full certification. A smaller percent of men teachers have certification than women teachers in spite of the fact that men teachers on the average have longer educational preparation.

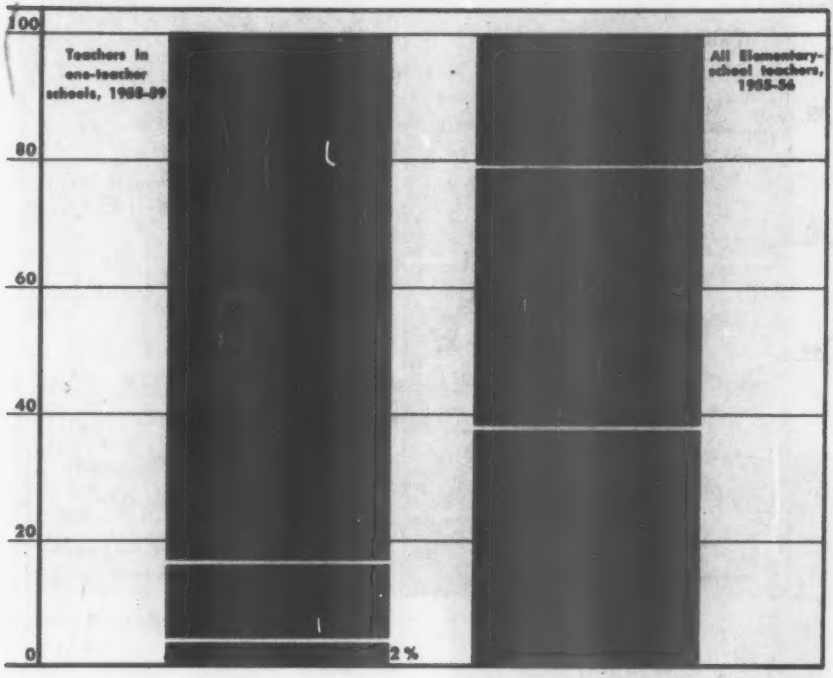
Length of Service

The one-room school teachers had an average of 11 years of teaching experience in 1959, of which three years were spent in their present school. The women teachers had an average of 11 years of teaching experience, while the

3—MARITAL STATUS OF TEACHERS IN ONE-ROOM SCHOOLS, 1958-59

Marital status and sex	Teachers reporting	
	Number	Percent
Men		
Single	31	23.1%
Married	99	73.9
Widowed, divorced	4	3.0
Total	134	100.0%
Women		
Single	212	14.4%
Married	1,093	74.0
Widowed, divorced	171	11.6
Total	1,476	100.0%
All teachers		
Single	243	15.1%
Married	1,192	74.0
Widowed, divorced	175	10.9
Total	1,610	100.0%

4—PREPARATION OF TEACHERS IN ONE-TEACHER SCHOOLS BELOW NATIONAL AVERAGE



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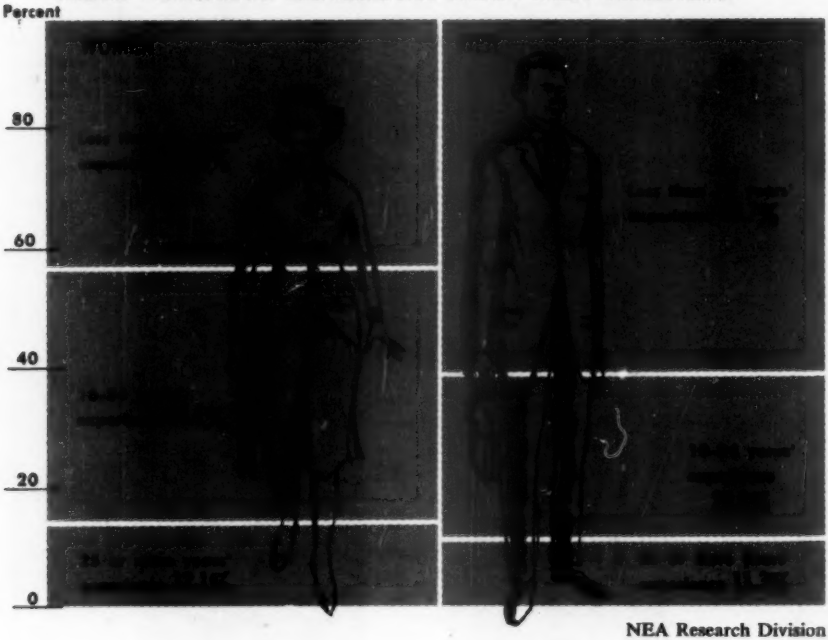
5—PERCENT OF TEACHERS IN ONE-TEACHER SCHOOLS AT VARIOUS TRAINING LEVELS, 1958-59

Level of education	By population area			By sex[a]		
	Open area	Town, less than 150	Town, 150 or more	Men	Women	Total[a]
High-school graduate	0.1%	0.2%	0.7%	0.0%	0.3%	0.2%
Less than 2 years of college	29.3	23.0	10.3	15.7	25.5	24.7
2 years of college but less than 4	56.4	60.5	63.0	50.8	59.6	58.9
4 years of college but less than 5	11.1	13.8	19.8	21.6	12.2	13.0
5 years of college or more	3.1	2.5	6.2	11.9	2.4	3.2
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Number reporting	745	552	146	134	1,476	1,610
Percent of teachers in population area	51.6%	38.3%	10.1%	....	....	....

[a] Includes replies not indicating size of area.

6—WOMEN TEACHERS IN ONE-TEACHER SCHOOLS HAVE MORE TEACHING EXPERIENCE THAN MEN TEACHERS



NEA Research Division

men teachers had only six years, a difference that would be expected in view of the higher average age of the women teachers.

The teachers with the most experience are employed in the larger communities. Teachers employed in open country had an average of nine years of teaching experience, teachers in centers of less than 150 population had an average of 11, and those in villages of 150 or more population had an average of 14 years of experience.

Salaries

The average salary of the one-room school teacher in 1959 was $2954, only 61.6 percent of the U. S. average for all classroom teachers.

Although men teachers have fewer years of teaching experience and fewer of them hold full certification, their median salary was slightly higher than the median salary of women teachers. The median salary of men teachers was $2957; and of women teachers, $2921.

Table 8 shows that the schools in large communities paid considerably higher salaries than the schools in small communities.

Table 9 shows considerable differences among the salaries paid one-room school teachers by region. The highest average salary is in the Far West, the lowest in the Southeast.

The average salary for one-room school teachers is below the average salary of all classroom teachers generally but the difference is smaller in some regions than in others. In the Far West the average salary of one-room school teachers is 83.0 percent of the

average salary of all classroom teachers. In the Middle Atlantic region it was only 47.8 percent.

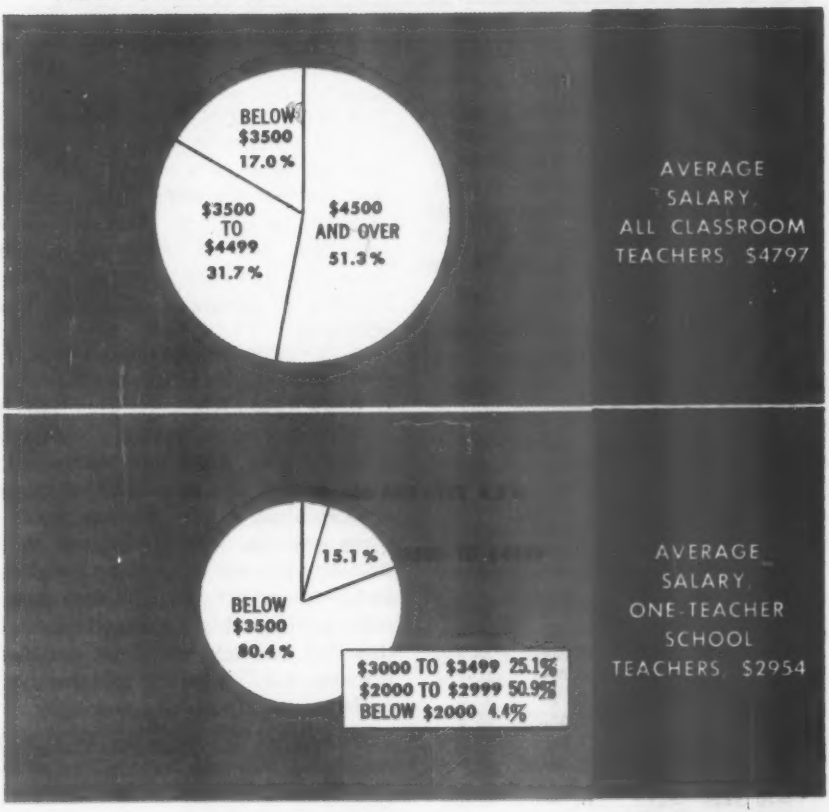
The number of years of teaching experience makes little difference in the salaries paid teachers of one-teacher schools. The average salary for teachers with one to four years of experience was $2580; for teachers with more than 35 years of experience, $3217.

The level of education completed made some difference in the teacher's average salary. The average salary of teachers with less than two years of college was $2349; two years but less than four, $2780; four years but less than five, $3215; and five or more years, $3582.

Work Load

The most comprehensive study of teacher load, made by the NEA Research Division in 1950, showed that American public-school teachers spent an average of 48 hours a week on school duties inside and outside school. A typical teacher in a one-teacher school spent 54 hours a week on school duties in 1959, the men spending a little less time in school than women

7—TEACHERS IN ONE-TEACHER SCHOOLS ARE PAID LESS THAN THE TYPICAL CLASSROOM TEACHERS



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8—DISTRIBUTION OF SALARIES PAID TO TEACHERS IN ONE-TEACHER SCHOOLS, 1958-59

Salary intervals	By population areas: Open country	Town of less than 150	Town of 150 or more	By sex: Men	Women	Total[a]: Number	Percent
Below $1,500.....	0.6%	1.4%	2.2%	3.2%	0.7%	14	0.9%
$1,500–1,999.....	2.5	4.9	5.7	7.1	3.2	53	3.5
2,000–2,499.....	21.9	17.2	9.3	17.5	18.4	275	18.3
2,500–2,999.....	34.6	31.8	20.9	24.6	33.4	490	32.6
3,000–3,499.....	24.5	25.2	28.0	23.0	25.3	377	25.1
3,500–3,999.....	9.5	10.1	17.3	7.9	11.1	163	10.9
4,000–4,499	3.4	5.1	6.5	3.2	4.3	63	4.2
4,500 and over....	3.0	4.3	10.1	13.5	3.6	66	4.5
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	....	100.0%
Number reporting..	706	512	139	126	1,375	1,501	....
Median.....	$2,859	$2,927	$3,185	$2,957	$2,921	$2,923	....
Mean.....	$2,892	$2,946	$3,192	$3,059	$2,944	$2,954	....

[a] Includes replies not indicating size of area.

teachers but a little more time outside school hours in school duties.

School Buildings

The average one-teacher school building is 43 years old (built before 1916). Over half of the school buildings were built between 1900 and 1929. Over one-fifth of them were built before 1900, some of these even before 1870. Yet most teachers considered their buildings generally satisfactory. Although about two-thirds had no inside toilet, and more than half used stoves to heat the building, 97 percent of the schools had electricity.

9—AVERAGE ANNUAL SALARY OF ONE-ROOM SCHOOL TEACHERS, BY REGION, 1958-59

Region	Average salary: All classroom teachers	One-room school teachers	As a percent of average salary of all classroom teachers
New England...	$4,880	$3,143	64.4%
Middle Atlantic.	5,541	2,651	47.8
Southeast.....	3,764	2,239	59.5
Middle.....	4,938	2,745	55.6
Southwest.....	4,531	3,866	85.3
Northwest.....	4,084	2,678	65.6
Far West.....	5,799	4,812	83.0
Total United States	$4,797	$2,954	61.6%

No Regrets

When the teachers were asked whether they would teach in a one-room school if they could start over again, about 94.2 percent answered Yes! When they were asked if they planned to continue teaching, 39.8 percent said they definitely planned to continue teaching, and 28.8 percent said that they probably would. Only 13.7 percent said that they definitely would not continue teaching, and 17.7 percent said that they probably would not.

For details see: National Education Association, Research Division. *Status of One-Teacher Schools, 1959.* Research Monograph in process.

High-School Drop-outs

One in every 3 ninth-graders fails to finish high school

WITHIN THE CURRENT FRAMEWORK of critical and constructive examination of our nation's public schools, the youth who quits school before completing his secondary education continues to be of major concern. Here are a few salient aspects of the drop-out problem:

- Only slightly more than half of all fifth-grade pupils finish high school; less than two-thirds of those in the ninth grade remain through grade 12.
- Persons lacking a high-school diploma are the first to feel the results of the diminishing demand for unskilled labor and are at greatest disadvantage in periods of high unemployment.
- Juvenile delinquency is 10 times more frequent among drop-outs than among high-school graduates.
- To keep youth in school, attention must be focused on a meaningful curriculum, enlightened guidance efforts, and a program of financial aids.

Education Pays

The most obvious benefit of education is financial. A high-school graduate can expect to earn an average of $30,000 more, over a lifetime, than a high-school drop-out. His earnings will exceed by $50,000 those of someone who quits at the end of the eighth grade.

Even over the short term, the drop-out is cut off from many job opportunities. Although in 1950, 29 percent of the total labor force consisted of unskilled industrial laborers, the figure is expected to drop to 24 percent by 1965 and to 22 percent by 1975. Openings for unskilled labor decrease every year. Studies have shown that schooling is closely related to job level, and that unemployment is more marked among school drop-outs than among those who have finished high school.

Because of the correlation between juvenile delinquency and school drop-outs, society has a real interest in encouraging all youth to finish high school. From the personal point of view, as possession of a high-school diploma becomes increasingly general, a person without one is at a disadvantage financially, vocationally, and socially.

Characteristics of the Drop-out

The average drop-out is 16 years old; often he has been marking time, waiting to reach the age when he may legally quit school. He is most likely to quit between the ninth and tenth, or between the tenth and eleventh grades. It is especially likely that he will not return after a summer vacation.

As a rule, the drop-out has shunned participation in extracurricular activities, and he may have failed to become part of a social group within the school.

Usually his relationships with his teachers and with many of his fellow students indicate tension, suspicion, and strain. His poor attendance record, lack of interest, and failure to cooperate have contributed to his being retarded by about two years. Before leaving school, he may have spent as

many years there as one who graduates, but because he has probably been held back rather than promoted regularly, he will not have completed the full program by the end of his attendance period.

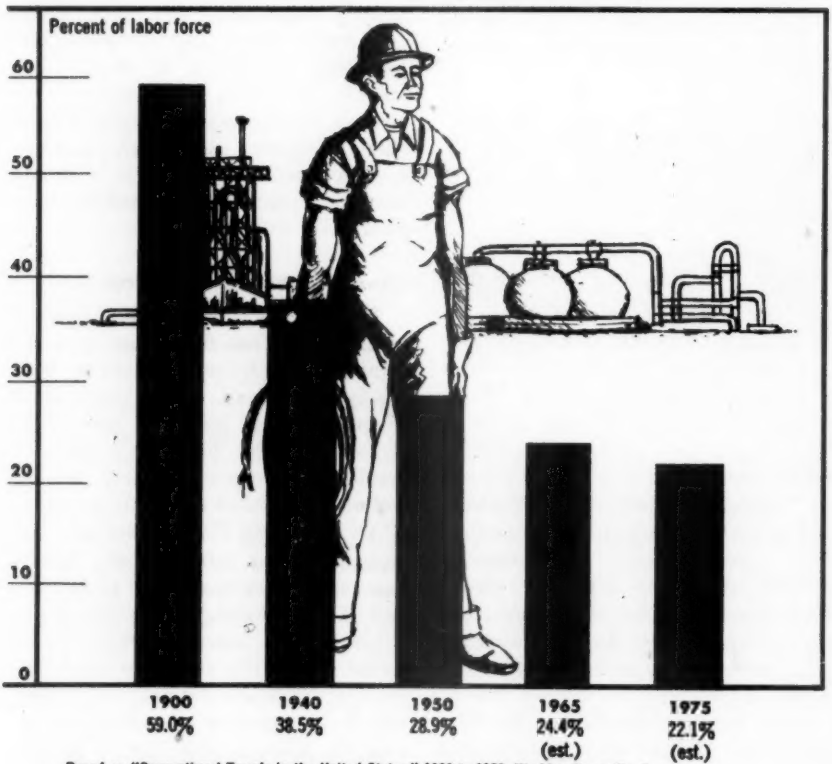
The typical drop-out's parents are unimpressed with the value of education; often they openly scorn "book learning." In addition, the family is likely to regard school as a financial burden; not only does it cost something to keep a child in school, but the family is deprived of the money which the boy or girl could be contributing to the budget.

The School

Most students who quit school before the eleventh grade have reasons connected with the school itself or with their ability to perform the work.

In general, drop-outs tend to have a lower measured intelligence than do high-school graduates. This is not universally true, and an especially great challenge is offered by those young people with high intelligence who do not remain in school; neither they nor society can benefit from their potential. Among those with less intelligence, however, it is difficult to determine how

1—THE FALLING DEMAND FOR UNSKILLED LABOR



Based on "Occupational Trends in the United States," 1900 to 1950, Working Paper No. 5 of the U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census; and unpublished data of the U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

NEA Research Division

much of the problem is attributable to socioeconomic status. One study has drawn special attention to the interrelationship of these two elements, owing to the combined effects of heredity and environment.

When a child has difficulty in learning to read in the early grades, his problems are often magnified in the later grades. Inability to do the work assigned or to keep up with the class leads to feelings of defeat and frustration, the first step in the decision to leave school.

Not only do many young people have difficulty with the curriculum, but they fail to see its significance for life. Although the present-day trend is to relate education to the demands of daily living, the relationship is often not made clear to the students, who conclude that they are wasting their time.

Extracurricular activities are one way students can enter into the life of the school, even if they fail to find any other attraction. But because of the nature or the cost of the activities available, and the possible relationship between social status and effective participation in many activities, most drop-outs do not take part in the program.

Complicating all these facets of the school's effect on the drop-out is the high incidence of interschool transfers, as studies have shown. A change in schools, with its attendant disruption in the curricular sequence, in patterns of friendship, and in extracurricular participation, intensifies the seriousness of all aspects of the problem. The resultant discouragement may drive the student away entirely. Add to this the frequent lack of rapport between student and teacher, and the situation often seems completely hopeless.

The Home

By the time the student reaches the eleventh and twelfth grades, reasons unconnected with the school are likely to influence the decision to stop short of graduation.

Most students cite financial need to go to work as the reason for quitting. In many cases this is doubtless true; in others it may be stated when some more personal concern is the compelling reason. In many communities, almost the only acceptable reason for quitting school is to go to work; it is not surprising, then, that this is so frequently given as the sole reason.

When poor health is cited as the reason for quitting, it may refer to the health of the student or to that of someone at home. Girls, for example, are frequently expected to quit school and look after the home and other children if the mother is in ill health. Only a small percentage of drop-outs leave for reasons of health, and the percentage could be cut still further, it is thought, with the help of community agencies in spotting illness and arranging for care.

Some students, usually girls, leave school to get married. Formerly schools used to require those who married to leave school, but increasingly this is no longer the case.

Probably the most important home-connected factor is the attitude of the parents toward the child's education and toward school in general. A child's attitudes are shaped largely by the feelings of his parents, especially his mother, and are reinforced by the attitude of the community.

The value systems of those around him inevitably color the child's outlook. If he is expected to forego immediate earnings in favor of long-term gains or personal satisfactions, the latter must be made goals acceptable to him.

On the other hand, when parents overemphasize the importance of school and make exaggerated demands for high performance, the child may rebel and wish to leave school.

The Student's Personality

Some children adapt themselves to school with difficulty because of personality defects. One who has difficulty making and keeping friends or whose behavior patterns antagonize his teachers and perhaps his classmates, may fail ever to feel comfortable in school. The imagined attractions of an independent life outside the school may then be sufficiently strong to entice him away.

The Solution: A Complex Approach

If this problem is to be solved, the attack must be waged on a number of fronts, to deal adequately with the complexity of the problem as it affects a variety of students.

That all students do not want the same things from school has long been recognized in the American system of public education. A continuing goal of the school must be to provide each child with the type of training and education best suited to him as an individual and to his expected needs as an adult. Furthermore, as the schools succeed in demonstrating the concrete value of what is being taught and its relationship to real life, students will more readily consider the time and effort spent worth their while. We must erase the impression that school is a waste of time for any student.

At the basis of any effort to retain all students is the guidance program. By identifying potential drop-outs, administering effective tests to probe areas of interest and aptitude, encouraging healthy and constructive attitudes toward school and toward life, and helping the student become a part of the school life, the guidance department and classroom teachers can eliminate some of the factors leading to many decisions to quit school.

A critical evaluation of the curriculum is a basic step. Provision of technical and vocational courses helps meet the special requirements of students for whom the academic work fills no real need. A wide selection of elective courses, designed to appeal to a broad spectrum of interests, must complement the basic academic training needed by all. Remedial work in academic studies and a reinterpretation of their importance in everyday life may both be needed.

Since extracurricular activities are a retaining attraction, all students should be encouraged to take part. Broadening the variety of activities available will help provide something of interest for everyone. Because the costs which are sometimes involved are also a factor in preventing some students from participating, these should be eliminated or, at the very least, reduced as much as possible. For a student disinterested in classwork, the extracurricular program may be the deciding factor.

In cases of financial hardship, assistance has sometimes been provided through co-operative work plans, permitting the student to spend part of each day in school and part on a supervised job. Family needs can often be alleviated through community agency action.

The community and the school have an important part in establishing a scale of values. An effective public relations program must aim at making school respectable for all students, and at stressing the values to the individual of education for life.

This is a challenge to the schools, to parents, to the community, and to students. Only through co-operative effort can it be met. Only a realistic approach can lead to success.

For details see: National Education Association, Research Division and Department of Classroom Teachers. *High-School Dropouts.* Discussion Pamphlet No. 3. Washington, D. C.; the Association, 1959. 32 p. 25¢.

Bigger and Fewer School Districts

—make many improvements possible

FOR MANY DECADES, the weaknesses of small school districts have been known and deplored, but for many decades, small school districts continued to be the typical organization outside large cities. Many thousands of school districts had three trustees but only one teacher. Subject only to state law and limited control from politically chosen county school authorities, the three trustees employed the teacher and made all other administrative decisions.

The NEA's first resolution on the problem was in 1914, when it endorsed "the plan of a larger unit in school organization and administration," as a means toward greater economy and efficiency. Such resolutions have been repeated often. The 1959 NEA platform recommends "units of school administration—reorganized if necessary —of sufficient size, resources, and enrollment to facilitate efficient and adequate programs of elementary and secondary education." The NEA Department of Rural Education for the past 25 years has waged a persistent campaign for school districts large enough to make a comprehensive educational program possible. And in the past three decades great progress toward larger districts has been made.

When the U. S. Office of Education began in 1931-32 its present plan of reporting the number of administrative units in its biennial *Statistics of State School Systems,* 127,442 school districts were reported. The average district enrolled 200 pupils. Today the total number is estimated at 40,605 and the average number of pupils per district at 900.

Mississippi provides a striking example of the progress made in the past 28 years. It reduced the number of districts from 5560 to 151—thus eliminating 97.3 percent of the total. The table that follows shows, state by state, the nationwide progress toward establishing school districts of efficient size.

Eight states in addition to Mississippi have eliminated 80 percent or more of the districts reported in 1931-32. These states are Arkansas, Idaho, Illinois, Nevada, New York, South Carolina, Texas, and West Virginia. South Carolina eliminated 94.0 percent of its districts; sparsely populated Nevada reduced its total from 266 to 17 school districts.

Illinois, with more than 10,000 districts eliminated, and New York, with more than 8000, had the greatest weight in total numbers in reducing the national total number of districts by 68.1 percent.

Many different types of reorganization have occurred. At one time, there

TRENDS IN NUMBER OF SCHOOL DISTRICTS (BASIC ADMINISTRATIVE UNITS) 1931-32 TO 1959-60

State	1931–32	1939–40	1949–50	1959–60	Percent of decrease, 1931–32 to 1959–60
Alabama	112	111	108	114	....
Alaska	....	....	27	29	....
Arizona	500	405	274	297	40.6%
Arkansas	3,193	2,907	421	422	86.8
California	3,589	2,993	2,381	1,721	52.0
Colorado	2,041	1,868	1,533	475	76.7
Connecticut	161	169	172	178	....
Delaware	17	16	17	94	....
District of Columbia	1	1	1	1	....
Florida	67	67	67	67	....
Georgia	272	1,203	186	198	27.2
Hawaii	....	....	1	1	....
Idaho	1,418	1,195	810	150	89.4
Illinois	12,070	11,996	4,880	1,700	85.9
Indiana	1,292	1,152	1,056	961	25.6
Iowa	4,870	4,869	4,652	2,052	57.9
Kansas	8,748	7,394	5,257	2,585	70.5
Kentucky	384	262	237	212	44.8
Louisiana	66	67	67	67	....
Maine	518	510	492	475	8.3
Maryland	24	24	24	24	....
Massachusetts	355	351	351	372	....
Michigan	6,965	6,466	4,918	2,150	69.1
Minnesota	7,773	7,685	7,116	2,600	66.6
Mississippi	5,560	4,954	3,673	151	97.3
Missouri	8,764	8,661	6,273	1,960	77.6
Montana	2,439	2,066	1,381	900	63.1
Nebraska	7,244	7,063	6,769	3,800	47.5
Nevada	266	255	196	17	93.6
New Hampshire	244	241	240	230	5.7
New Jersey	552	559	559	585	....
New Mexico	98	1,730	107	93	5.1
New York	9,467	6,433	3,929	1,373	85.5
North Carolina	200	171	172	174	13 0
North Dakota	2,228	2,274	2,250	1,600	28.2
Ohio	2,043	1,668	1,509	975	52.3
Oklahoma	4,933	4,174	2,176	1,322	73.2
Oregon	2,234	2,015	1,179	625	72.0
Pennsylvania	2,587	2,535	2,524	950	63.3
Rhode Island	39	39	39	39	....
South Carolina	1,792	1,738	1,559	108	94.0
South Dakota	3,433	3,429	3,401	3,100	9.7
Tennessee	194	162	148	153	21.1
Texas	7,932	5,664	3,324	1,583	80.4
Utah	40	40	40	40	....
Vermont	268	60	265	265	1.1
Virginia	125	124	127	129	....
Washington	1,792	1,411	591	412	77.0
West Virginia	450	55	55	55	87.8
Wisconsin	7,662	7,392	5,792	2,800	63.5
Wyoming	400	375	316	221	44.8
Total United States	127,422	116,999	83,642	40,605	68.1%

Sources:

Data for 1931–32 and 1949–50: U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education. "Statistics of State School Systems: 1955–56." Biennial Survey of Education in the United States: 1954–56. Washington, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, 1959. Chapter 2.

Data for 1939–40: U. S. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency. "Statistics of State School Systems: 1939–40 and 1941–42." Biennial Survey of Education in the United States: 1938–40 and 1940–42. Washington, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, 1944. Chapter 3.

Data for 1959–60: National Education Association, Research Division. "Estimates of School Statistics, 1959–60." Research Report 1959–R23. Washington, D. C.: the Association, December 1959. p. 18.

were thousands of nonoperating school districts, in which the trustees contracted with a larger neighboring district for the schooling of the district's children. Elimination of these nonfunctioning units thus made little change in the existing pattern of school operation. In other situations the reorganized district has made possible substantial changes in the attendance patterns and improvements in the school program.

Elimination of school districts has not been a problem in several states, mostly in the South, where large basic administrative units have been the traditional pattern of school control. There was little change in numbers in Maryland, Virginia, Tennessee, North Carolina, Florida, Louisiana, and Utah. In these states, however, much attention has been given to consolidating small schools into larger attendance units, a process which occurs *within* administrative units and is not reflected in data on the number of school districts. Many factors have delayed the formation of school districts of adequate size. These are a few of them:

- Politically ambitious local-school trustees have been unwilling to be displaced.
- False local pride, community acceptance of the *status quo*, and resistance to change have combined to block reorganization.
- Misconceptions of what a reorganized district would mean have produced unwarranted fears.
- Cumbersome procedures for reorganization have obstructed efforts to form larger districts.
- State school finance structures in some states have favored small districts.

Despite the obstacles, reorganization has gone forward. Revisions of state plans for the support of public schools have played a large part in the striking improvements of the past three decades.

The reduction in numbers of school districts continues. Some leaders believe that eliminating at least a third of the districts still remaining would bring still further improvements in school opportunities for children.

For further details see: National Education Association, Research Division. *Trends in Number of School Districts (Basic Administrative Units), 1931-32 to 1959-60.* Research Memo 1959-31. Washington, D. C.: the Association, December 1959. 7 p. Single copy free.

Next issue of Bulletin will be published in May.

Estimates of vital statistics reflect the growth of the enterprise

Spotlighting Public Education in 1960

ANNUALLY THE NEA Research Division publishes a report on the "vital statistics" of public education—*Estimates of School Statistics.* The current and eighteenth issue of this publication reflects a statistical gamut of this basic public enterprise—board members, districts, superintendents, teachers, enrollments, and the rising figures on revenue and expenditures.

A skim from the top of the report shows this:

- Pupil enrollment 36,399,802—up 4.1 percent from 1958-59
- Total instructional staff 1,455,335—a rise of 4.3 percent
- An average salary of $5160 for members of this staff—an increase of 4.5 percent
- A drop of 6.7 percent in the number of basic administrative units
- Current expenditures per pupil in attendance up 5.4 percent to $369
- Cost increases since 1949-50 of 75.4 percent in *per-pupil* current expenditures, 154.1 percent in *total* current expenditures, 221.0 percent in capital outlay, and 275.5 percent in interest.

The figures reported are *estimates,* prepared with the co-operation of state departments of education and state education associations.

Enrollment, the Shape of the Future

Current estimated enrollment outpaces the number of public-school pupils of 10 years ago by 44.5 percent. But the significant increase for 1959-60 is in the secondary schools—5.1 percent above 1958-59, or 1.4 percentage points over the elementary schools which increased enrollment 3.7 percent. This "bulge" follows that of the year before when secondary-school enrollments jumped 10.7 percent.

In the meantime, the steady feeding of children into the elementary school, characteristic of the last decade, increased. The 3.7-percent rise in enrollment was a higher rate than at any time since 1953-54.

The proportionate hold of public education on the school-age population remained comparatively static. In 1949-50, 83.1 percent of the population 5 to 17 years of age were in public schools; in 1959-60, an estimated 83.6 percent of them.

Average daily attendance—that reflection of student motivation, parental pressure, and law enforcement—rose

44.9 percent from 1949-50 to 1959-60. This parallels the enrollment increase of 44.5 percent during the same interval.

Average daily attendance as a percentage of total enrollment remains almost level at close to 89 percent. The nation's estimated 1959-60 attendance is 88.7 percent of the enrollment. This means that on any "average" school day 11 percent of those enrolled in public schools are ill, travelling, or perhaps truant.

An enrollment increase of some 45 percent in the past 10 years suggests the shape of things to come—continued pressures for more teachers, more school buildings, more related services, and for the money to pay for them.

Streamlining School Administration

Reducing the number of administrative units is a cherished goal in public education. Advanced concepts about the minimum tax base and the number of pupils necessary for an adequate educational program have been a factor in bringing about a drastic reduction in the number of basic administrative units and of school-board members, our only declining statistics. The downward trend continues. There are about 3000 fewer units than a year ago.

The number of citizens serving as school-board members has dropped along with the number of basic administrative units. In 1933 a round 424,000 persons served their communities as school-board members or trustees. By 1958-59 their ranks had dwindled to 185,228. This year there are almost 12,000 fewer than last year.

A surface inspection of statistics suggests that superintendents are a hardier breed than school-board members. According to the 1959-60 estimates there are now only 27 fewer superintendents than there were a year ago. However, many of the abandoned administrative units were too small ever to have employed a superintendent, or had not even been operating a school. A few over 13,000 superintendents are now on the job. A vocational forecast: Each year fewer school superintendents; each year more assistant superintendents.

Salaries Take the Spotlight

Salaries for members of the instructional staff—and more specifically, salaries for classroom teachers—continue to be a focal point for any spotlight on public education. The current average salary for the instructional staff—$5160—represents the salaries of principals, supervisors, and various other instructional specialists as well as classroom teachers. Obviously, this average has always been higher than that for classroom teachers, which is $5025 in 1959-60.

The percentage rise in average salary for classroom teachers over last year is a shade greater, however, than that for the entire instructional staff. For classroom teachers the increase was 4.8 percent; for total instructional staff, 4.5 percent.

The gap between the average salaries paid to elementary-school teachers and those paid to secondary-school teachers

1—DISTRIBUTION OF CLASSROOM TEACHERS' SALARIES, 1952-53 TO 1959-60

School year	Percent of classroom teachers paid		
	Below $3,500	$3,500-4,499	$4,500 and over
1952-53	62.0%	25.0%	13.0%
1953-54	55.8	26.6	17.6
1954-55	48.5	29.2	22.3
1955-56	42.6	31.4	26.0
1956-57	35.0	33.0	32.0
1957-58	25.6	33.5	40.9
1958-59	17.0	31.7	51.3
1959-60	12.9	29.9	57.2

has been narrowing in the past 10 years. In 1950-51, the average elementary-school salary was about 82 percent of the high-school salary. In 1959-60 this proportion had risen to 91 percent.

The salaries paid to professional educators vary widely from state to state and from region to region. In 1959-60, average salaries for the instructional staff were $2110 higher in the Far West than in the Southeast. In 11 states the average salary of the instructional staff was less than $4000; in only three states was it as much as $6000.

Salaries for the instructional staff have gained in each of the past 10 years —average annual rate of increase, 5.6 percent. This year an instructional staff member is getting over 70 percent more than he would have received 10 years ago. But this apparent gain is eroded by increases in the cost of living. He finds that his 70-percent dollar increase in average salary over 10 years ago buys him only about 39 percent more than he could have purchased of the world's goods and comforts in 1949-50 with the average salary then paid.

Teacher Numbers

The instructional staff in 1959-60 totals 1,455,335. Of this number, 1,348,567, or 93 percent, are classroom teachers.

The proportions of the teachers in elementary and secondary schools have altered slightly in the past decade. From 1949-50 through 1952-53, elementary-school teachers were close to 65 percent of the total teaching force. Since then, this proportion has dropped to 62 percent in 1959-60. While increases in the number of elementary-school teachers have continued, the number of high-school teachers has increased proportionately more. The estimates for 1959-60, compared with those for 1958-59, show a 5.6-percent gain in high-school teachers compared with one of 3.5 percent for the elementary-school group.

2—SCHOOL EXPENDITURES OUTRUN SCHOOL REVENUES

NEA Research Division

3—TEN YEARS OF COST INCREASES, 1949-50 TO 1959-60

NEA Research Division

Teacher Qualifications

How to increase the teaching force and maintain standards of teacher qualification continues to be an abiding problem. Estimates for 1959-60 are that 1 teacher in 14 is teaching with a substandard, temporary, or emergency credential—a ratio almost constant since 1951-52, even though the total number of classroom teachers increased by about 386,000 during that period.

Of approximately 94,000 temporary teachers, 72 percent are in elementary schools, 59 percent are in elementary or secondary schools in rural areas, and 54 percent of them have less than four years of college preparation. The mere number of teachers with emergency credentials understates the broader problem of teacher shortage. It does not show the number of unfilled positions, the number teaching in fields for which they are not fully prepared, nor the number of teachers needed to reduce class size and teacher work load. Neither does it show the numbers needed to expand services such as counseling, libraries, and testing.

Where the Money Goes

The $15.5 billion for public education in 1959-60 will be allocated for three types of expenditures: current expense, capital outlay, and interest on school district debts.

Current expense includes the cost of administration, instruction, supplies, maintenance and operation of school plants, and services such as transportation, health, attendance, and lunch programs. Current expense has increased 154.1 percent since 1949-50. This is

an annual average rise of 9.8 percent for the last decade.

Current expenditure is the conventional basis for calculating school costs per pupil. This cost per pupil rose 75.4 percent since 1949-50, about half the rate of increase for total current expenditures. This difference in rates of increase can be accounted for by growth of the pupil population, the growing proportion of students in secondary schools, and the extra cost of the elusive factor of quality. For the hypothetical individual public-school pupil a national average of $369 will be spent for current expenses in 1959-60. By state the range will be from less than $200 (one state) to more than $500 (two states).

The $3.26 billion 1959-60 outlay for capital investment represents an increase of 221.0 percent since 1949-50, and 6.4 percent over last year. This figure represents the first attempt by the NEA Research Division to report estimates for capital outlay and interest separately. The estimate does not include slightly over $200 million which in four states—Georgia, Indiana, Kentucky, and Pennsylvania—is paid building "authorities" that help to provide school buildings.

Since a highly significant proportion of expenditures for capital outlay comes from borrowed money, the costs of public-school borrowing become increasingly important. The past decade has witnessed a growing need for deficit spending. Borrowed money makes up the difference between school revenues and school expenditures.

Interest will take better than $377 million of school funds for 1959-60. This represents 10.5 percent more than last year, a phenomenal increase of 275.5 percent since 1949-50.

Many local school leaders have to defend school costs that are rising much faster than school enrollments. These trends are part of a national pattern. While enrollment has risen 45 percent, current expenditures have risen 154 percent and capital outlay and interest have more than tripled. Much of the increase has been due to rising prices, although costs of schools have risen less than those for other building types. Fortunately, however, a small part of the total increase in school expenditures has been available for the addition of quality to the school program.

For details see: National Education Association, Research Division. *Estimates of School Statistics, 1959-60.* Research Report 1959-R23. Washington, D. C.: the Association, December 1959. 31 p. 75¢.

Summer Schools = Opportunity

for talented boys and girls to study Russian, creative writing, and advanced mathematics

A SIGNIFICANT FEATURE of current efforts to meet the educational needs of *all* children is the growth of summer schools, both in numbers and in scope of program.

A survey made during the summer of 1959 revealed that an estimated one-half of the urban school districts in the United States now operate summer schools. Many of these will expand their programs in the near future, and a number which have none at present will add them soon.

At least two-thirds of the summer-school programs now in operation in urban school systems are in districts with populations of 10,000 or more. A majority of them include both the elementary and secondary grades; others are only for high-school students; and a few are elementary programs only.

These facts are brought out in an Educational Research Service Circular, which reports on the status of summer programs in 302 individual school districts. In determining the extent to which summer schools are operated in the country as a whole, the figures were weighted in order to obtain an estimate for all 3807 school districts of 2500 or more population.

Length and Scope of Programs

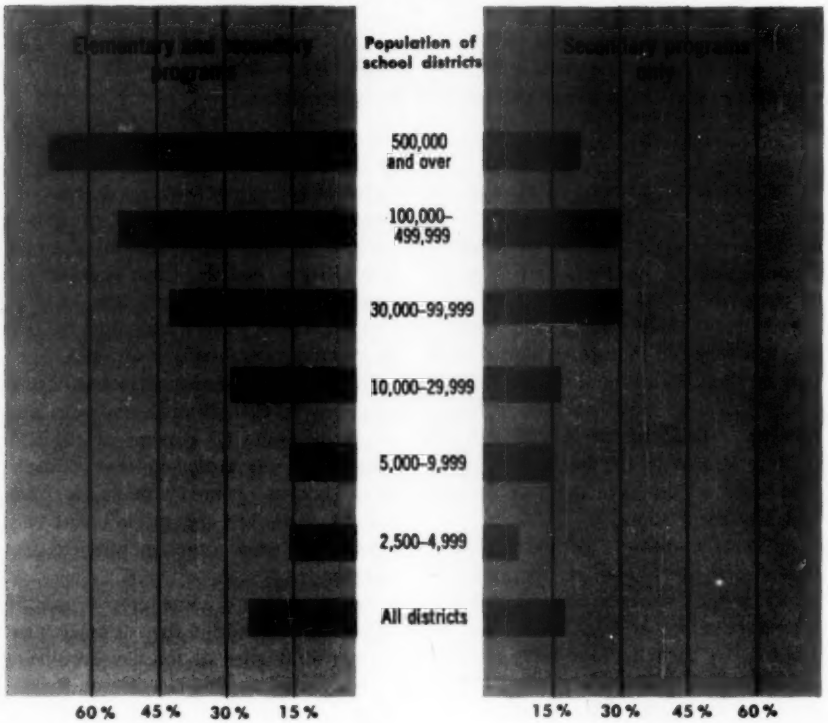
Of the 302 districts included in the ERS report, 256 had summer schools in 1959. The length and scope of the programs varied widely. In length, there was a range from 4 to 10 weeks. Medians were 6.6 weeks at the elementary level, and 7.3 weeks in secondary grades. Summer-school terms are longer in the larger school systems. Secondary-school students in districts of half a million or more population attended school for a median of 8.1 weeks in the summer of 1959, while the median length of term in districts under 30,000 in population was only 6.4 weeks.

While many summer schools still provide only the traditional make-up and remedial work, 80 percent of the 256 school systems indicated that "enrichment" is now a primary objective. "Advanced work for the gifted" and "acceleration" also were mentioned frequently.

Of interest are some of the specific subjects included in the summer programs. Indicative of the new trend are such courses as Russian, Great Books, rapid reading, and creative writing. Driver education, typing, music, art, and dramatics also were mentioned. College-bound students are offered pre-college English, briefhand for convenient note-taking, and languages. In many schools, highly talented students may take advanced courses in mathematics and science. Such students in one community will have an opportunity next summer to participate in a program set up by the school system with the co-operation of local engineering and industrial groups.

It is clear, therefore, that the emphasis in summer-school programs is shifting from help only for the slower students to a broader concept which includes something of value for all students. Boys and girls who are headed for college are benefiting especially from the change. Many others, how-

1—EXTENT OF SUMMER-SCHOOL PROGRAMS, 1959



NEA Research Division

ever, may profit from the opportunity to take additional courses that cannot be included in the schedule of the regular academic year.

Tuition

Tuition is charged for summer instruction in 166 of the 256 school districts included in the report; 35 charge more to nonresidents than to local students. In addition, 13 require payment only from nonresidents.

The remaining districts—30 percent of those with summer programs—reported that no tuition is charged, although a few do charge a registration or materials fee of $3 or $4.

The bases for determining the amount of tuition are many. Probably the most prevalent plan is to charge according to the number of semester units or credits a student includes in his summer program. However, many districts have a flat rate for summer-school attendance. Others charge less for repeated courses than for new courses. Still others have a scale of rates based on the type of subject, requiring a higher payment for such courses as science, driver education, and music than for regular classroom subjects.

For further details, see: National Education Association, Research Division and American Association of School Administrators. *Summer-School Programs in Urban School Districts.* Educational Research Service Circular No. 7, 1959. Washington, D. C.: the Association, October 1959. 41 p. $1.25.

State Minimum-Salary Laws

Laws of six states now require at least $4000 for beginning teachers with bachelor's degrees; 10 states now require $4000 for beginners with master's degrees

BY STATE LAW, public-school teachers in 35 states are now guaranteed minimum annual salaries. Puerto Rico also has a minimum-salary law.

These laws provide a base below which local boards of education may not go in fixing teachers' salaries. By no means do they prevent local communities from paying teachers more than the required minimums.

Here is what the salary figures show for the 1959-60 school year:

- The medians of the minimum salaries for beginning teachers at all levels of preparation are $200 above 1958-59.
- Six of the 36 minimum-salary laws currently provide for annual salaries of $4000 or more for new teachers with the bachelor's degree as compared with three in 1958-59.
- While a year ago only six states required salaries of $4000 or more for beginning teachers holding a master's degree, 10 states now do.
- Higher salaries are also being required by law for experienced teachers in the 24 states operating under minimum-salary schedules which call for increments. Salaries of $5000 or more for the master's degree level are now required by 12 states as compared with 10 states a year ago.

1—DISTRIBUTION OF LEGAL MINIMUM SALARIES FOR TEACHERS, 1959-60

Salary intervals	For beginning teachers			For teachers with maximum credit for experience		
	Lowest level if below B. A.	B. A.	M. A.[a]	Lowest level if below B. A.	B. A.	M. A.[a]
$6,000-6,999	....	....	....	....	1	4
$5,000-5,999	....	....	....	5	10	8
$4,000-4,999	3	6	10	1	4	5
$3,000-3,999	9	17	16	4	8	7
$2,000-2,999	11	10	8	5	....	....
$1,000-1,999	8	2	1	4	1	....
Below $1,000	4	1	1	1	....	....
Number of states	35	36	36	20	24	24
Median minimum	$2,400	$3,202	$3,405	$3,018	$4,590	$4,917

[a] In those states where no separate minimum salary is provided for the master's degree, the salary for the bachelor's degree is used.

2—LEGAL MINIMUM ANNUAL SALARIES FOR TEACHERS, 1959-60

State	Flat rate	For beginning teachers			For teachers with maximum credit for experience		
		Lowest level if below B. A.	B. A. or four years	M. A. or five years	Lowest level if below B. A.	B. A. or four years	M. A. or five years
Alaska:							
First division	....	$4,500	$4,650	$4,800	$5,000	$5,850	$6,900
Third division	....	4,900	5,050	5,200	5,400	6,250	7,300
Second and fourth divisions	....	5,200	5,350	5,500	5,700	6,550	7,600
Arkansas	....	1,500	2,700	3,000	....	....	....
California[a]	....	2,400	4,500	....	....	....	....
Colorado	....	2,925	3,380	....	....	....	....
Delaware[b,c]	....	3,200	3,600	4,000	5,100	5,500	5,900
Florida:							
Annual contract[b]	....	2,025	3,060	3,465	....	....	....
Continuing contract (fourth year)	....	....	4,000	....	....	5,000	....
Georgia[c]	....	2,300	3,000	3,300	2,650	3,550	4,000
Hawaii	....	3,960	4,020	4,320	5,808	6,000	6,300
Idaho	....	1,670	2,370	2,570	1,895	3,090	3,470
Illinois	....	3,200	3,400	3,600	....	....	....
Indiana	....	2,600	3,600	3,800	3,200	4,680	5,600
Iowa[d]	....	630	810	....	....	....	....
Kentucky	....	1,350	2,610	2,880	....	....	....
Louisiana[e]	....	1,900	3,400	3,600	2,200	5,600	6,400
Maine	....	2,200	3,000	3,200	3,200	4,000	4,200
Maryland[e]	....	3,000	3,200	....	4,800	5,000	....
Massachusetts[a]	$4,000	....	....	....	....	....	....
Mississippi	....	800	2,650	2,875	1,000	3,050	3,275
New Jersey	....	3,600	3,800	4,000	5,400	5,800	6,200
New York:							
Fewer than 8 teachers	4,000	....	....	....	....	....	....
Eight teachers or more[e]	....	....	4,000	4,300	....	5,600	5,900
North Carolina	....	1,510	2,946	3,340	2,004	4,145	4,557
North Dakota[d]	....	900	1,350	....	....	....	....
Ohio	....	3,000	3,700	4,100	....	....	....
Oklahoma[a,b]	....	....	3,600	3,800	....	5,100	5,300
Oregon	....	3,400	3,700	4,000	....	....	....
Pennsylvania	....	3,600	3,600	3,600	5,000	5,400	5,800
Puerto Rico[a,b]	....	1,560	2,400	2,760	2,280	3,120	3,480
Rhode Island	....	3,200	3,200	....	....	5,200	....
South Carolina[b,c]:							
Lowest grade	....	783	1,107	2,268	900	1,728	3,087
Highest grade	....	1,305	2,295	2,412	1,836	3,114	3,267
Tennessee[a,b]	....	1,710	2,650	2,920	1,890	3,400	3,760
Texas (9 months)	....	2,187	3,204	3,429	2,835	3,852	4,833
Vermont[e]	....	2,700	3,400	3,700	3,800	4,500	4,800
Virginia	....	2,250	2,650	....	3,450	3,850	....
Washington[d]	$2,400	....	....	....	....	....	....
West Virginia[b]	....	1,485	2,790	3,060	1,809	3,492	3,924
Wisconsin	....	2,400	4,000	....	....	....	....

[a] Adopted salaries, not fully in effect in the 1959–60 school year.

[b] In addition, higher minimum salaries are specified for teachers with doctor's degrees.

[c] Applies to teachers with full, professional, or permanent certification.

[d] Law is currently obsolete; all present salaries exceed the minimum requirements.

[e] A lower minimum-salary schedule prevails owing to insufficient state appropriations to implement the statutory requirements.

Teachers in all fields use

Magazines in the Classroom

TO MEET THE CHALLENGE of offering increasingly high-quality education to generally overcrowded classes, America's classroom teachers use a large variety of aids to increase their effectiveness. One of the most widely used is the magazine of general circulation. Intended chiefly for adult readers and not designed primarily for school use, these periodicals are here called "lay magazines."

Replies to a questionnaire survey on the extent of magazine use brought to light many original techniques for using periodical materials successfully in the classroom, in addition to a number of noteworthy facts.

- Magazines are one of the few sources of information in areas of current or constantly changing knowledge.
- Use of magazines offers specific benefits for slow-learning, average, and rapid-learning students.
- Some of the most imaginative classroom projects are sparked by materials appearing in lay magazines.
- The comparative study of magazines provides training in independent, critical, and evaluative thinking.
- Obstacles to wider use include limitations of time, funds, physical facilities, and adaptability.
- The real key to effective use of magazines is the ingenuity and resourcefulness of the teacher.

What Are the Broad Findings?

Both elementary- and secondary-school teachers responded to the questionnaire, and in some respects their replies were closely similar. For instance, one of the most common uses mentioned by both groups of teachers was in developing bulletin board displays or in providing materials for student scrapbooks.

Other ways in which teachers at all levels use magazines include the maintenance of a file of useful reference information, the provision of materials for free reading and for enrichment, the use of illustrations by means of an opaque projector, and the stimulation of student writing by the use of magazine writing as a model.

While a great many magazines were named by the teachers as being used with some regularity in their classes, those mentioned most frequently were *Life, National Geographic, Newsweek, Time, Reader's Digest, Look, Saturday Evening Post, U. S. News and World Report,* and *Holiday*. These are in addition to publications aimed directly at the schools, which were not within the scope of this study.

Because of the nature of magazine materials and their levels of interest,

however, certain fundamental differences in the use of magazines do exist among the grade levels. Many of the most useful techniques in the upper grades would be unfeasible in the elementary grades.

Elementary School

In the earliest grades, because of the limited abilities of the pupils, magazine use remains quite restricted. Most respondents reported drawing from them rather heavily for displays, for which the pictorial materials are invaluable. All parts of the magazines serve for this purpose, including illustrations and advertising. For slightly older children, an entire article related to a subject under study may be included in a display.

In addition, even the youngest pupils enjoy games centering on magazines. These usually involve searching the publication for pictures, cutting them out, and using them to spur the creation of the pupils' own ideas.

In many units of work, the children prepare scrapbooks, using, at least in part, materials gleaned from lay magazines. Scrapbooks are commonly made on subjects having to do with health, science, art, religion, and history.

Even in the early grades, where the pupils are unable to use the textual material themselves, magazine articles can make a contribution to classroom work. Many teachers either read interesting articles to the class or summarize them in understandable language. One of the major contributions is often in broadening the background of the teacher and in enriching his own preparation for a specific unit of work.

Many teachers expressed enthusiasm for the way in which magazines motivate independent reading. Occasionally pupils are allowed to take school copies home, where they may use them and share them with their families. In this way the children gain practice in reading skills and also are introduced to new areas of possible interest.

In addition to employing the factual material, teachers frequently use magazine articles as the basis for training in other skills such as outlining, punctuating, creative writing, and bibliographical recording.

For current events study, teachers at all levels are obliged to rely heavily upon periodical materials. In addition, many features dealing with historical subjects have been used in the classroom for a background against which current events are viewed and understood. The recent visit of Khrushchev was followed by elementary classes throughout the land, and many of them undertook a study of Russia which gave added meaning to the history they were witnessing. Various magazine features on Russia were utilized for this purpose.

In general, magazine materials dealing with subjects included in a textbook have an added realism which appeals to pupils. Geography teachers find this especially useful, since an article can draw the material under study out of the realm of the academic and into the world of real places and things.

In science courses, too, periodical publications provide up-to-the-minute news of scientific advances and principles. Seeing a magazine article on a subject under study in class has a double advantage for the pupils: First, written for popular tastes, and often accompanied by striking illustrations, the magazine material usually is readily understandable. Textbooks, with large bodies of content to present, cannot emphasize and illuminate a single major point as can an article. Second, information featured in magazines is clearly of current interest to a wide segment of readers. Pupils thus acquire a feeling

for the importance and meaning of what they are studying, and also gain the benefit of up-to-date findings to supplement their text and reference books. Once again, magazines help bring abstract learning into the realm of the concrete.

Most teachers reported a fairly high degree of pupil enthusiasm for work with magazines. In general, even at the elementary level, magazines arouse interest in a wide variety of subjects, offer encouragement to read (especially for slow readers), teach pupils to locate information and to value current publications as a source of information, and develop recreational reading habits.

What Obstacles Exist in Early Grades?

Many teachers indicated that they would make even greater use of magazine materials but for a number of obstacles. Chief among them were lack of time and money. A crowded teaching schedule too often means that the teachers themselves do not have time to search for usable materials or to adapt them to the level of the class or to a particular subject under study. In addition, a crowded course of study or curriculum, through the pressure it exerts to cover a specified amount of text material, often deters the teacher from introducing anything extra into the classroom work. Many teachers stated that all they can do is cover the material required.

To teachers this is an important obstacle, since it is so frequently mentioned. Yet many teachers have solved the problem by using magazine materials as extra-credit references, or for displays, or with an opaque projector to enrich the class work without an undue investment of precious time.

Almost all teachers indicated that lack of sufficient funds stands in the way of acquiring enough magazines. Some regret that a greater variety of magazines is not available for pupil use, while others would like more copies so that more than one pupil could use the material at the same time.

Many teachers have taken at least some steps toward solving this problem by collecting used magazines from friends and neighbors.

Other obstacles to greater magazine use include inadequate physical facilities for magazine storage, the presence of objectionable materials in the magazines, the general difficulty of adaptation, and in some cases, at least, a small degree of parental opposition. The fact that magazine use is so widespread indicates that these obstacles can be overcome with ingenuity and determination.

Secondary School

In junior and senior high schools, the most common uses parallel closely those encountered in the elementary grades, including displays, scrapbooks, reference materials for panel discussions, and models for creative writing.

Certain more advanced techniques, however, are particularly adapted to the subject matter of the secondary schools. English classes, for instance, frequently include a unit on magazines, in which attention is focused on style, makeup, viewpoint, and authors. This gives the students an over-all view of what is available and teaches discrimination in the use of periodicals.

A number of teachers reported that they encourage students to compare articles in different magazines in order to identify editorial bias and arrive at an objective view. Development of a critical approach is also fostered by analyzing the background of the authors, their qualifications to write on the subject concerned, their purpose and bias, and their success or failure in dealing with the subject.

The better literary magazines serve in many English classrooms as a secondary text for contemporary literature; many teachers report great student enthusiasm for the articles and stories they contain. English classes also make wide use of articles containing historical or literary background for enriching literature courses. Foreign-language classes also find these useful; in addition, they welcome articles of a geographical and cultural nature.

As in elementary school, a major use of magazines in social studies is in the field of current events and contemporary history. In the secondary school, current information of this sort is frequently used for more than its merely factual value; it is likely to serve as a basis for panel discussions, analyses of major historical trends, the study of basic human problems, and an understanding of causes underlying the ultimate facts.

Homemaking teachers expressed general enthusiasm for the various magazines providing material on fashions, fabrics, appliances, styles, foods, and other facets of homemaking.

One aspect of the value of magazines in the total school framework which might not have been suspected upon casual consideration is in the guidance program. Useful information is available on occupations, education, personal hygiene, and similar topics. Some schools maintain bulletin board displays devoted to professional or vocational opportunities, college information, local job opportunities for students, and other useful information of a guidance nature.

Some teachers use magazines in particularly original ways. For example, articles and magazines have been the basis for class dramatizations, mock radio programs, and class publications. Using information from periodicals, one class studied the stock market and available securities, each student planning an individual portfolio. A study in wise purchasing has been based on reports contained in a consumers' magazine. As the replies to the questionnaire revealed, there is almost no limit to the types of classroom activities that either use magazines or find their original inspiration in them.

Obstacles at the Secondary Level

As in elementary school, a shortage of time and money stands in the way of greater magazine use. A few objections, however, were voiced only by secondary-school teachers. Some, for example, find editorial bias a deterrent to greater use. At the same time, others have turned this potential disadvantage to good use by drawing students' attention to bias and training them to recognize it and develop a well-rounded, accurate picture from a variety of sources which may cancel out each other's individual slants.

Several teachers advanced suggestions for increasing the usefulness of magazines in the classroom. One urged the presentation of information on current economic trends. Another cited the need for the *Abridged Reader's Guide* in all school libraries, so as to multiply the effectiveness of whatever magazines are locally available. Several others indicated that one of the major problems is in timing, since often useful articles do not appear when they would best fit into the program. Though this is inevitable, it was believed that if teachers could be provided with advance notice of scheduled articles in at least some of the major magazine features, they could plan their teaching schedule so as to exploit them to the fullest.

In this connection, many teachers appreciated the reprint service offered by some publishers, which makes it possible to supply a whole class with copies of important articles. Teachers believe that the expansion of this service would be extremely helpful.

Even teachers who suffer from the greatest obstacles to effective magazine use, however, have devised ways to overcome them. If the school budget cannot stretch far enough to provide magazines in adequate numbers, teachers arouse the interest of private citizens in their problem, and old issues of magazines donated to the school are made available to the students. When there is inadequate space to store large numbers of issues, file systems are devised to keep articles of potential interest. An added dividend of this technique is the bibliographical experience in keeping the file up to date and indexing its contents. Teachers who lack the time to glance through enough magazines for useful material assign students to do the sifting and bring in articles of interest to the class. Where there is imagination and a will, there seems to be a way.

One of the chief advantages of magazines to the teacher faced with an outsized class covering a wide range of abilities is that their use seems to appeal to all types of students. For the slow learner they offer encouragement to read in areas of special interest. For the average student, they offer enrichment of the regular course work and the heightening of interest that goes with new and current material. And for the superior student, they offer the challenge of adult materials, a broad range of topics, and in many cases a depth which the regular classroom material does not approach.

This survey has revealed that magazines have entered the classroom as a welcome and valued teaching aid. Given a creative teacher, their uses are legion, and their contributions to the total teaching program impressive indeed.

Based on preliminary draft of study by the Research Division for the Joint Committee of the NEA and Magazine Publishers Association.

Dividends from Education

IN 1958, A TOTAL of 74,317 handicapped persons were placed in employment after training provided through vocational rehabilitation agencies. When rehabilitation was begun:

- 53,700, or 72 percent, were unemployed.
- Nearly 15,000 were receiving $13 million annually in public assistance.
- Those employed were earning $23.3 million annually (generally in unsafe, unsuitable, or part-time work).

As a result of the rehabilitation program:

- The 74,317 were employed as follows: 26 percent became skilled and semi-skilled workers; 17 percent went into clerical and sales work; 19 percent became service workers; 9 percent went into semiprofessional, professional, or managerial fields; 13 percent were family workers and housewives; and 9 percent became agricultural workers.
- Earnings in 1958 were estimated at the rate of $144.2 million per year.

The rehabilitation program cost about $13 million, but these persons who became taxpayers will pay during their working lives about $10 in federal taxes for every federal dollar invested in them, and also will save the government welfare costs.

Data from *1958 Annual Report of the U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare*, p. 215-38.

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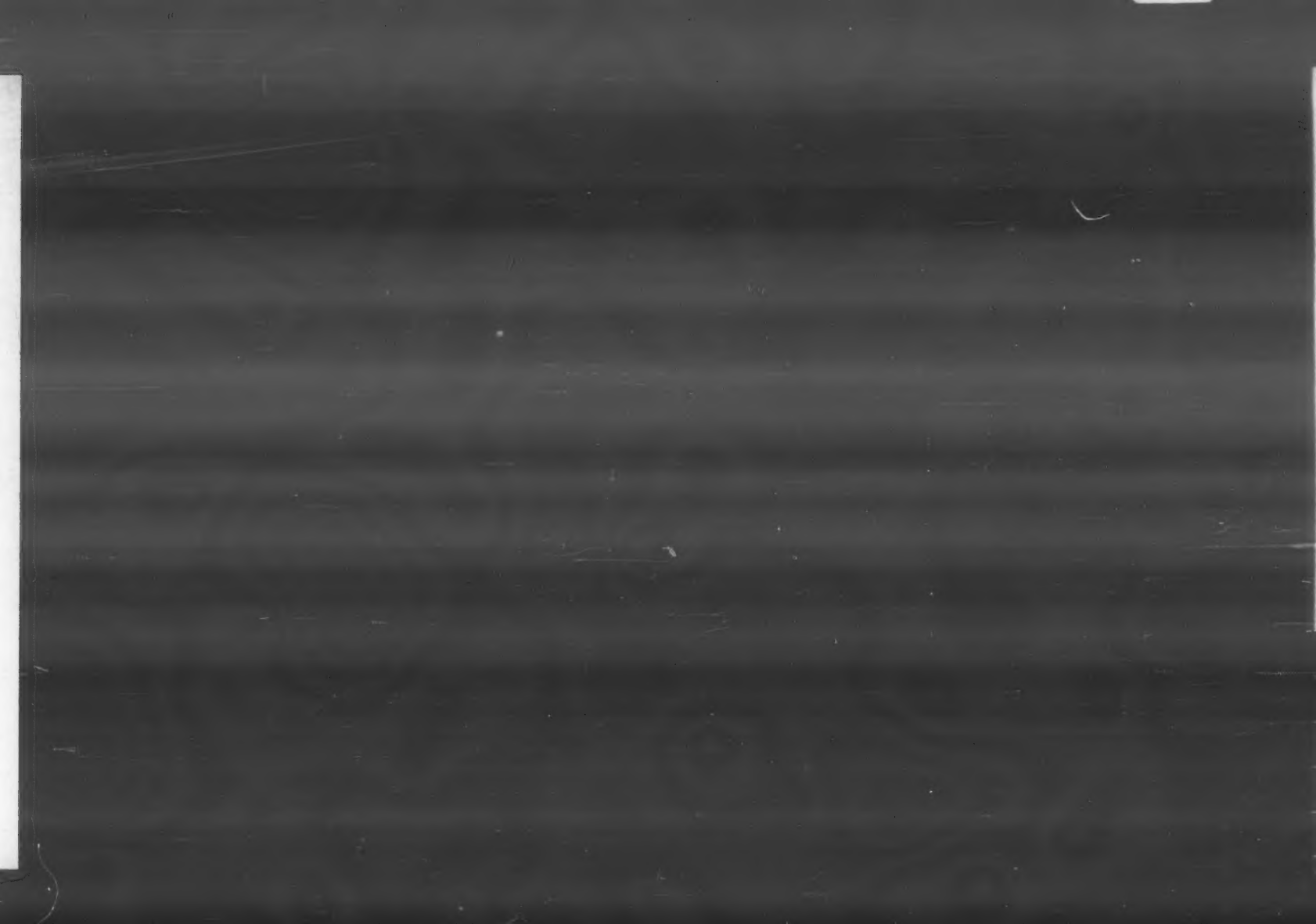
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